CULTURAL RESOURCES SURVEY OF THE DILLON INDUSTRIAL 69kV PROJECT, DILLON COUNTY, SOUTH CAROLINA

CHICORA RESEARCH CONTRIBUTION 352

CULTURAL RESOURCES SURVEY OF THE DILLON INDUSTRIAL 69kV PROJECT, DILLON COUNTY, SOUTH CAROLINA

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March 27, 2002

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ABSTRACT

This report provides the results of a cultural resources investigation of approximately 1.32 acres of land to be used for the Dillon Industrial 69kV Project near the city of Dillon in central Dillon County, South Carolina. The study was conducted by Dr. Michael Trinkley of Chicora Foundation for Mr. Tommy Jackson of Central Electric Power Cooperative, Inc. The study is intended to assist Central Electric Power Cooperative comply with Section 106 of the National Historic Preservation Act and the regulations codified in 36CFR800.

The project area is situated entirely on a fallow field, which borders S-34 to the west and an existing transmission line to the east.

Consultation with the S.C. Department of Archives and History revealed no previously identified NRHP sites or previously surveyed architectural sites within the 0.5 mile APE, although Dillon County has not received a comprehensive county survey.

Research at the South Carolina Institute of Archaeology and Anthropology also failed to identify any archaeological sites within the 0.5 mile APE.

The archaeological study of the tract incorporated shovel testing at 100-foot intervals along transects placed at 100-foot intervals, starting from the northwest corner of the tract and extending along S-34 to the southeast. All shovel test fill was screened through ¼-inch mesh and the shovel tests were backfilled at the completion of the study. A total of 11 shovel tests were excavated within the survey area with an additional 8 tests excavated for the site found.

As a result of these investigations, one site 38DN129, a sparse prehistoric lithic and ceramic surface scatter, was uncovered. Very few artifacts were found and none were diagnostic, so it is unlikely that this site will be able to address significant research questions pertaining to the prehistoric period. This site, therefore, is recommended not eligible for inclusion on the National Register of Historic Places.

A survey of public roads within 0.5 mile of the proposed mine area was conducted in an effort to identify any architectural sites over 50 years old which also retained their integrity. Two structures were found (0025 and 0026). Structure 0025 represents a ca.1850 house with a cross gable roof. This house is recommended eligible for the National Register of Historic Places. The second structure, 0026, represents a ca. 1910 house with a truncated hip with multiple gabled roof. This house is recommended potentially eligible for inclusion on the National Register of Historic Places. Although both of these structures have been recommended eligible or potentially eligible for inclusion on the National Register of Historic Places, both are out of direct view from the proposed project area and probably will not have any adverse effects on these structures.

Finally, it is possible that archaeological remains may be encountered in the project area during clearing activities. Crews should be advised to report any discoveries of concentrations of artifacts (such as bottles, ceramics, or projectile points) or brick rubble to the project engineer, who should in turn report the material to the State Historic Preservation Office or to Chicora Foundation (the process of dealing with late discoveries is discussed in 36CFR800.13(b)(3)). No construction should take place in the vicinity of these late discoveries until they have been examined by an archaeologist and, if necessary, have been processed according to 36CFR800.13(b)(3).

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INTRODUCTION

This investigation was conducted by Dr. Michael Trinkley of Chicora Foundation, Inc. for Mr. Tommy Jackson of the Central Electric Power Cooperative, Inc. The work was conducted to assist the Central Electric Power Cooperative, Inc. comply with Section 106 of the National Historic Preservation Act and the regulations codified in 36CFR800.

The project site consists of 1.32 acres of land proposed to be used for the Dillon Industrial 69kV Project, west of the city of Dillon off I-95 in Dillon County (Figure 1). The project is situated in a fallow field of S-34.

The tract, as previously mentioned, is intended to be used for a substation. Landscape alteration, primarily clearing, grubbing, and grading, as well as subsequent construction of the towers and other facilities, will cause some damage to the ground surface and any archaeological resources which may be present in the survey area.

Construction, operation, and maintenance of the substation may also have an impact on historic resources in the project area. Although the project will not remove any structures, substations (as well as other above grade projects) may detract from the visual integrity of historic properties, creating what many consider discordant surroundings. As a result, this architectural survey uses an area of potential effect (APE) about 0.5 mile radius around the proposed corridor.

This study, however, does not consider any future secondary impact of the project, including increased or expanded development of this portion of Dillon County.

We were requested by Mr. Tommy Jackson of Central Electric Power Cooperative to provide a proposal for the survey in March 2002. A proposal was provided and accepted shortly thereafter.

These investigations incorporated a review of the site files at the South Carolina Institute of Archaeology and Anthropology. As a result of that work, no sites were found within the 0.5 mile APE.

The South Carolina Department of Archives and History GIS was consulted to check for any NRHP buildings, districts, structures, sites, or objects in the study area. No NRHP sites were found within a mile of the survey, however no comprehensive county surveys have been performed for Dillon County.

Archival and historical research was limited to a review of secondary sources available in the Chicora Foundation files.

The archaeological survey was conducted on March 14, 2002 by Mr. Tom Covington and Ms. Nicole Southerland under the direction of Dr. Michael Trinkley and revealed one site, 38DN129, situated within the proposed project area. This site revealed a surface collection of prehistoric lithics and ceramics. None of the artifacts are diagnostic and very few artifacts were found. Therefore, this site is recommended not eligible for inclusion on the National Register of Historic Places.

The architectural survey of the APE, designed to identify any structures over 50 years in age which retain their integrity revealed two structures, 0025 and 0026. 0025, a house ca.1850, has a cross gable roof and an L-shape porch. This house is recommended eligible for inclusion on the National Register of Historic Places for its association with historic events. 0026 represents a ca.1910 house with a truncated hip and multiple gabled roof. This house is recommended potentially eligible for inclusion on the National Register of Historic Places.

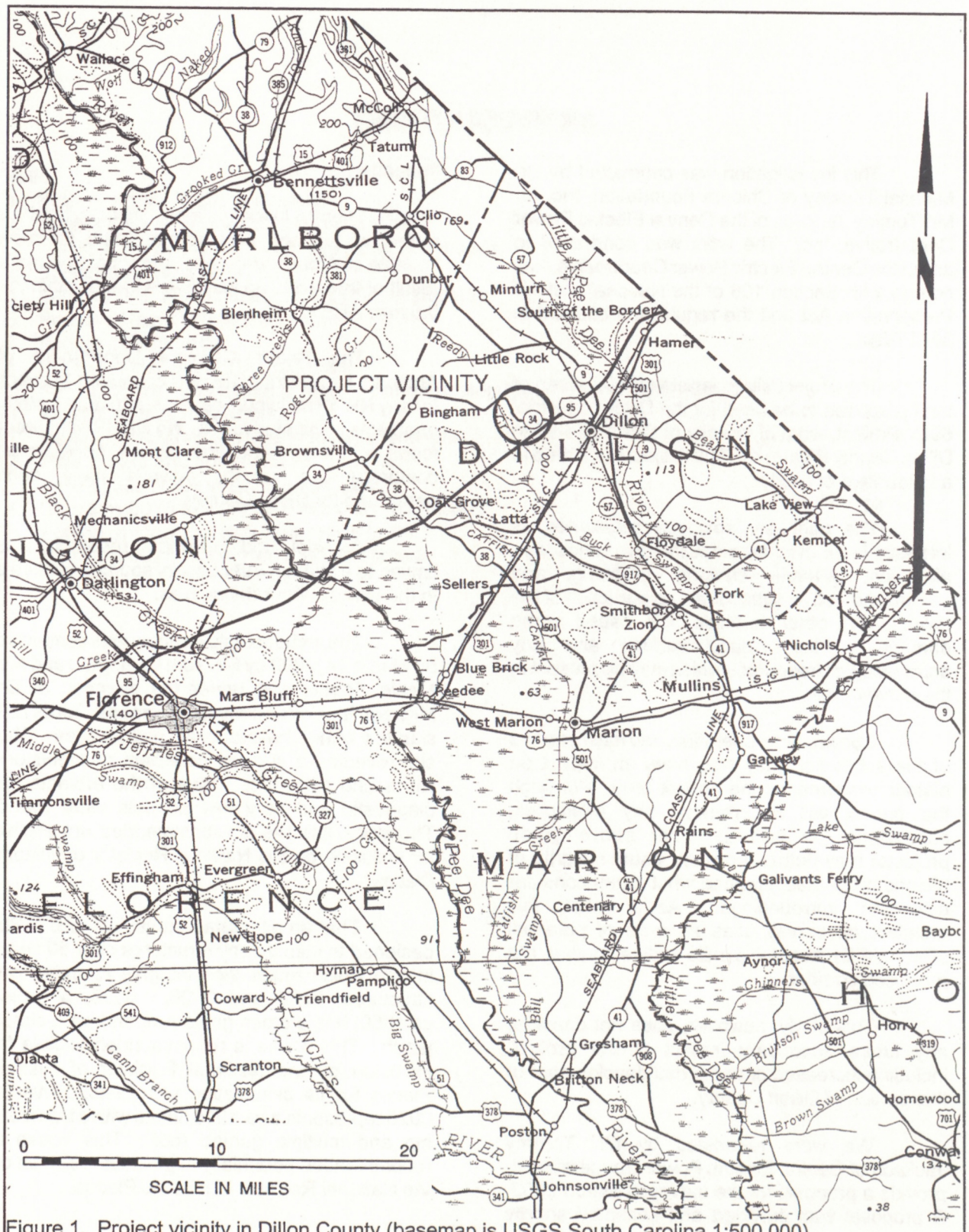

Figure 1. Project vicinity in Dillon County (basemap is USGS South Carolina 1:500,000).

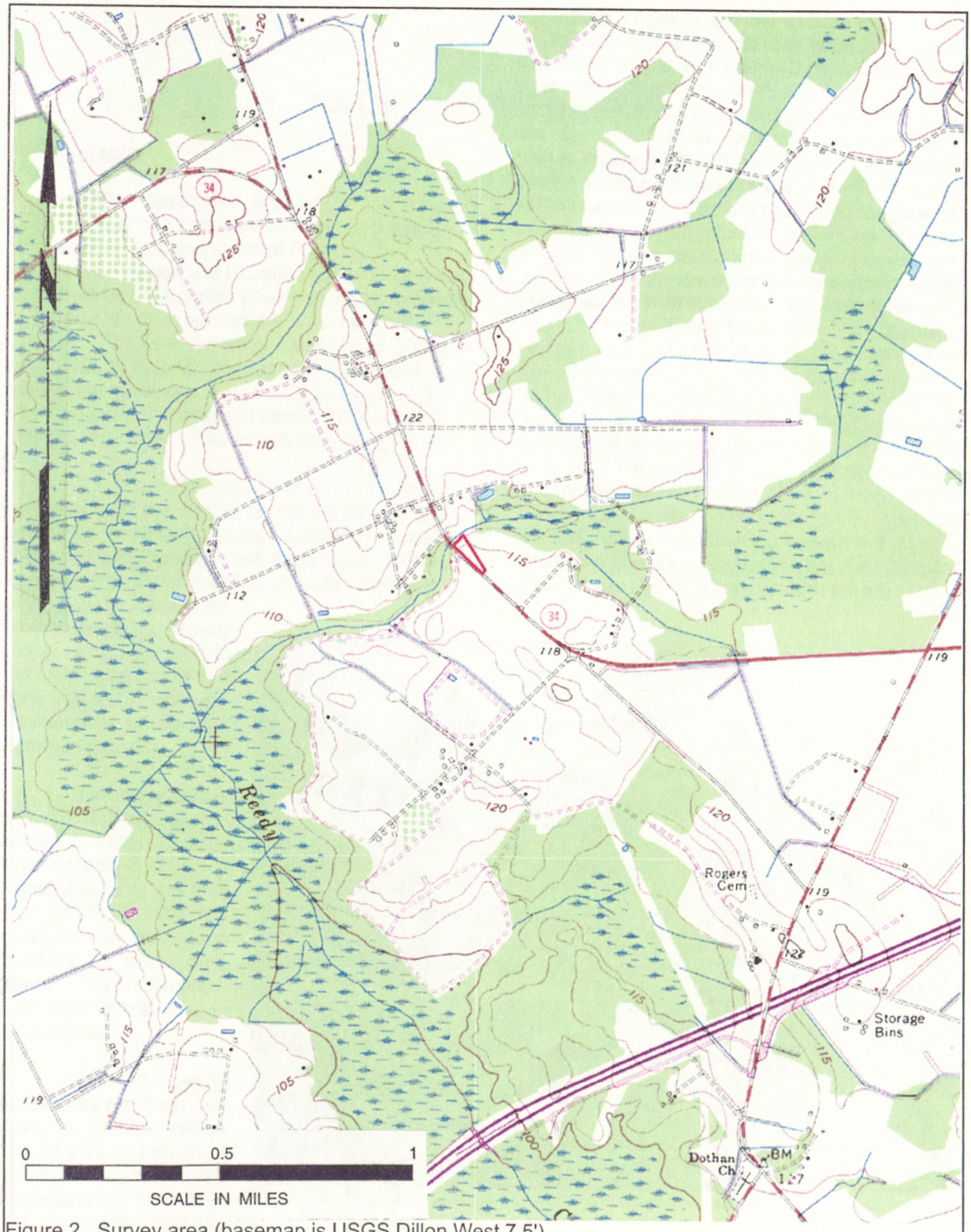

Figure 2. Survey area (basemap is USGS Dillon West 7.5').

Laboratory work and report production was conducted at Chicora's laboratories in Columbia, South Carolina from March 27-28 One archaeological site form, for the site identified during this investigation, has been filed with the South Carolina Institute of Archaeology and Anthropology (SCIAA). The field notes, artifact catalog, and artifacts resulting from these investigations will be curated at SCIAA and will be maintained by that institution in perpetuity. The only photographic materials associated with this project are color prints, which are not archival. The negatives and prints for these photographs are retained by Chicora Foundation.

NATURAL ENVIRONMENT

Physiography

Dillon County is situated in the Inner Coastal Plain of South Carolina and is bounded on the southwest by the Great Pee Dee river, on the south by Marion and Florence counties, on the southeast by the Lumber River, on the northeast by North Carolina, and on the west by Marlboro County. The land primarily consists of gently rolling hills with elevations ranging from about 42 feet above mean see level (AMSL) in parts of the river floodplains to a high of about 170 feet AMSL in the northern part of the county (Dudley 1978:1).

The Great Pee Dee River and the Lumber river flow past the county on the southwest and southeast. Their main tributaries include Poccosin Swamp, Gum Swamp, and Beaverdam Creek. The Little Pee Dee River flows through the center of the county. Next to the project area is Reedy Creek which joins with the Little Reed Creek and eventually flows southeastward to the Lumber River.

The study area is situated in the central portion of Dillon County. The proposed tract is situated on a fallow field next to S-34. To the north of the tract is a hardwood and pine forest, while on the south and east sites are in fallow fields.

The topography tends to be relatively flat, with a gentle slope toward a small branch of Reedy Creek to the north. Elevations are from 110-115 feet AMSL and the study tract exhibits no noticeable ridges or rises which might make occupation more likely.

Geology and Soils

The geology is characteristic of the Coastal Plain. The parent materials of the soils are marine or fluvial deposits which consist of varying amounts of sands, silts, and clays. There are three terrace formations in the county formed during the Pleistocene period. The Sunderland terrace is about 100 to 170 feet AMSL and makes up most of Dillon County. The Wicomico terrace is about 70 to 100 feet AMSL and makes up area along the Little Pee Dee River swamp and its tributaries. The Penholoway terrace is about 42 to 70 feet AMSL. It makes up stream terrace soils along the Great Pee Dee, the Little Pee Dee, and the Lumber Rivers (Dudley 1978: 56-57).

Figure 3. Northern portion of tract with pines and hardwoods just outside the survey area.


Figure 4. Survey tract on a fallow field looking southeast.

The project area contains only one soil series, Dothan loamy fine sands. This soil has an Ap horizon of dark grayish brown (10YR4/2) loamy fine sand to a depth of 0.7 foot over a layer of light yellowish brown (10YR6/4) loamy sand which occurs to a depth of 1.2 feet (Dudley 1978).

Mills comments the swampland soils are composed of the "richest soil". He notes that, "[w]hile the swamp lands reclaimed and secured from freshets, will bring 50 dollars and acre; and the oak and hickory lands 15 dollars and acre; the pine lands will scarcely sell for 1 dollar per acre" (Mills 1972 [1826]). He also observed that "[o]ff the water courses the situations are healthy," but "[a]s the swamps are the principal sources of disease in this country, it is much to be regretted that measures are not taken to drain, or reclaim them, which would not only secure the blessing of health to the people, but afford an immense quantity of rich soil for cultivation to the district" (Mills 1972 [1826]). the products cultivated during that time were "cotton, corn, wheat, pease, and potatoes" (Mills 1972 [1826]).

Climate

The general climate of the Dillon County area is characterized by mild humid conditions. This climate is influenced by the warm Gulf Stream, as well as by the Appalachian mountains which block the coldest air masses. Other factors include latitude, elevation, distance from the ocean, and location with respect to the average tracts of migratory cyclones. Day to day weather is controlled primarily by the movement of pressure systems across the nation. however, during the summer months there are few complete exchanges of air masses because tropical maritime air persists for extended periods (Dudley 1978).

The average annual precipitation in the Dillon area is 46.12 inches and is unevenly distributed throughout the year, with 29.35 inches occurring from April through October which is the primary growing season (Dudley 1978).

The climate, according to Mills (1972 [1826]), "taking the whole year round, is pleasant". The annual average temperature in Dillon is 61.2°F, and the average monthly temperature ranges from 42.6°F in January to 79.0°F in July. Frozen precipitation occurs only one to three times a year during the winter season. The abundant supply of warm, moist and relatively unstable ir produces frequent scattered showers and thunder storms in the summer. Severe weather usually means violent thunderstorms, tornadoes, and hurricanes. The tropical storm season is in late summer and early fall, although storms may occur as early as May or as late as October (NOAA 1977). Heavy rains and high winds occur with tropical storms about once every six years. Storms of hurricane intensity are much

more infrequent. Droughts have occurred twice in modern times; in 1925 and 1954. Less severe dry periods have occurred more often, normally in late spring or in autumn (Dudley 1978).

Floristics

There are two major categories of plant communities which exist in the Coastal Plain area where there is nearly level topography. The first category consists of upland vegetation. supported here are a mixture of coniferous and deciduous forests dominated by pines and broadleaf taxa such as upland oaks, sweetgum, hickories, and various understory species.

Lowland forests are located on the floodplains of the Pee Dee, Little Pee Dee, and Lyches rivers. This floodplain is 30 to 40 feet lower in elevation and is clearly defined by a scarp, such as found on the northern boundary of the survey tract. These floodplain soils are forested with balk cypress, gum, sycamore, water hickory, lowland oaks, soft maples, willows, and other herbaceous species.

In the early nineteenth century Mills observed that :

> the long leafed pine is most abundant of the forest trees; next the cypress, various kinds of oak, the hickory, tupelo &c. Of fruit trees the peach, apple, pear, plum, &c. are common (Mills 1972 [1826]).

Mills also observed that the major use of these forest resources was construction, also noting that "good clay is found in various places, suitable to make brick" (Mills 1972 [1826]). Only lime, largely made of burnt shells, needed to be imported into the area (primarily from neighboring Georgetown). Mills encouraged the residents to make better use of their local" shell limestone" for lime, a suggestion which appears to have made little impact in the local economy (Mills 1972 [1826]).

Today, about a third of Dillon County's uplands have been cleared for cultivation. In fact, the entire survey area and most of the surrounding area lay in fallow fields.

PREHISTORIC AND HISTORIC SYNOPSIS

Previous Research

Although considerable research has been conducted in the lower coastal plain of South Carolina, little scholarly research has focused on the region inland to the fall line. As of 1991, 14 of the 15 archaeological studies (93.3%) conducted in Dillon County have involved highway construction and have examined only very small, isolate areas of the County. The remaining project involved a historic preservation survey and plan (see Derting et al. 1991). More recently, Dillon County has had more substation surveys (see Trinkley 1998). The closest major investigations are found in neighboring Florence County. They include the 1984 survey of the 2700 acre Santee Cooper Pee Dee Electrical Generating Station (Taylor 1984). The Santee Cooper study identified 103 cultural resources, including 38 prehistoric sites, 33 historic sites, and 32 standing structures. The most intensively used environmental zones were the bluff edge and along minor tributaries. Upland areas were only lightly used, primarily by Woodland Period groups. Another major survey was the 1400 acre Gibson Plantation survey, located on the Pee Dee River, just east of Florence (Trinkley and Adams 1992). Forty-two archaeological resources were identified, including eight with prehistoric components and 38 historic components. Since the survey, two of the sites (38FL240 and 38FL249) have received data recovery (Trinkley et al. 1994). 38FL240 is an antebellum slave through early twentieth century settlement. 38FL249 is a prehistoric site occupied from the early Archaic to the late Woodland period. More recently, Chicora Foundation has conducted several additional studies in the Florence area for the location of the Honda Motor Plant (see Trinkley and Barr 1997, Trinkley 1997a, 1997b, 1997c, Trinkley and Southerland 2002).

For historic settlement, the studies found that eighteenth century sites were found either on the bluff edge, or along major roads. In the nineteenth century the bluff edge was abandoned and settlements were almost exclusively "road-oriented," although they might be set back from the road as much as 300 feet. By the early twentieth century the settlement pattern is less well defined, with tenant sites occurring in a variety of locations (Taylor 1984; see also Trinkley and Adams 1992).

These studies (Taylor 1984; Trinkley and Adams 1992) are important because they were used as the underpinning for current work since they were both performed in similar environmental contexts. The quantity, location, and nature of the sites identified there guided our research design. The results of the current work would test ideas about prehistoric and historic settlement patterns put forth by these works.

The Pee Dee Electrical Generating Station survey identified a total of 103 cultural resources within the 2409 acre tract. These included 38 prehistoric sites, 33 historic sites, none homesites, 16 tobacco barns, and seven packhouses (Taylor 1984). The principle field method used to locate sites was systematic pedestrian survey, augmented by shovel testing in vegetated areas. Tests were placed at "regular intervals (20 to 50 meters) or in favorable locations in irregular topography" (Taylor 1984). The bluff edge along the Pee Dee River was partially wooded and the river itself was located within an average of 1000 feet of the bluff. Within 1000 feet of the bluff edge, 11 sites were identified all measuring no less than 400 feet across.

The results of Taylor's work indicated that prehistoric sites were found to occur in four principal settings: bluff edges, minor tributaries, upland areas, and Little Swamp Creek tributary settings. At historic sites, eighteenth century sites were found on the river bluff adjacent to Old River Road. In the nineteenth century, the bluff edge was abandoned as a farmstead, although there was minor use by tenant farmers. Nineteenth century sites were not immediately adjacent to the road, but were set back as much s 100 meters

(Taylor 1984). Similar results were received during the Gibson Plantation survey (Trinkley and Adams 1992).

Although there are no detailed studies of Dillon County, the archaeological resources in neighboring Florence County appear somewhat sparse (for example, one site per 26 acres in the Santee Cooper study), especially in the 'inland areas". This may be the result of relatively poorly drained soils, an absence of ecological diversity, or other factors. Regardless, archaeological sites seem to be found in rather narrowly defined areas.

Similar prehistoric results were found in a survey of the White Creek drainage in Marlboro County (Ward 1978). There a large number of Archaic and Middle Woodland sites were found on the edges of terraces, overlooking the creek swamp. Ward noted that the survey area, while poor for horticulture, represents a "rich and vared selection of wild plant and animal resources [resulting from its location] in an ecotonal zone" (Ward 1978). Wards' work represented the first clearly defined Middle Woodland Yadkin occupation sites in the upper coastal plain of South Carolina.

More recent research at 38SU83 in Sumter County yielded additional information concerning on the Yadkin phase in the upper coastal plain (Blanton et al. 1986). A short term, domestic settlement, 38SU83 documents Yadkin phase ceramic and lithic technology, while offering some very tentative suggestions of a seasonal round and possible caching behavior.

Recent work at 38FL249 indicated that while the Archaic period occupants used a diffuse area of the site, the Yadkin phase occupants concentrated their activities adjacent to a spring head. This suggests that other Middle Woodland sites will be found in a similar environmental context (Trinkley et al. 1994). This work remains one of the few published reports on the excavation of a Yadkin phase site.

Prehistory of the Region

The Paleo-Indian period, lasting from 12,000 to 8,000 B.C., is evidenced by basally thinned, side-notched projectile points; fluted, lanceolate projectile points, side scrapers, end scrapers; and drills (Coe 1964; Michie 1977; Williams 1968). The Paleo-Indian occupation, while widespread, does not appear to have been intensive. Artifacts are most frequently found along major river drainages, which Michie interprets to support the concept of an economy "oriented towards the exploitation of now extinct mega-fauna" (Michie 1977:124).

Unfortunately, little is known about Paleo-Indian subsistence strategies, settlement systems, or social organization. Generally, archaeologists agree that the Paleo-Indian groups were at a band level of society (see Service 1966), were nomadic, and were both hunters and foragers. While population density, based on the isolated finds, is thought to have been low, Walthall suggests that toward the end of the period, "there was an increase in population density and in territoriality and that a number of new resource areas were beginning to be exploited" (Walthall 1980:30).

The Archaic period, which dates from 8000 to 2000 B.C., does not form a sharp break with the Paleo-Indian period, but is a slow transition characterized by a modern climate and an increase in the diversity of material culture. Associated with this is a reliance on a broad spectrum of small mammals, although the white tailed deer was likely the most commonly exploited mammal. The chronology established by Coe (1964) for the North Carolina Piedmont may be applied with little modification to the South Carolina coastal plain and piedmont. Archaic period assemblages, exemplified by corner-notched and broad-stem projectile points, are fairly common, perhaps because the swamps and drainages offered especially attractive ecotones.

In the Coastal Plain of the South Carolina there is an increase in the quantity of Early Archaic remains, probably associated with an increase in population and associated increase in the intensity of occupation. While Hardaway and Dalton points are typically found as isolated specimens along riverine environments, remains from the following Palmer phase are not only more common, but are also found in both riverine and interriverine settings. Kirks are likewise common

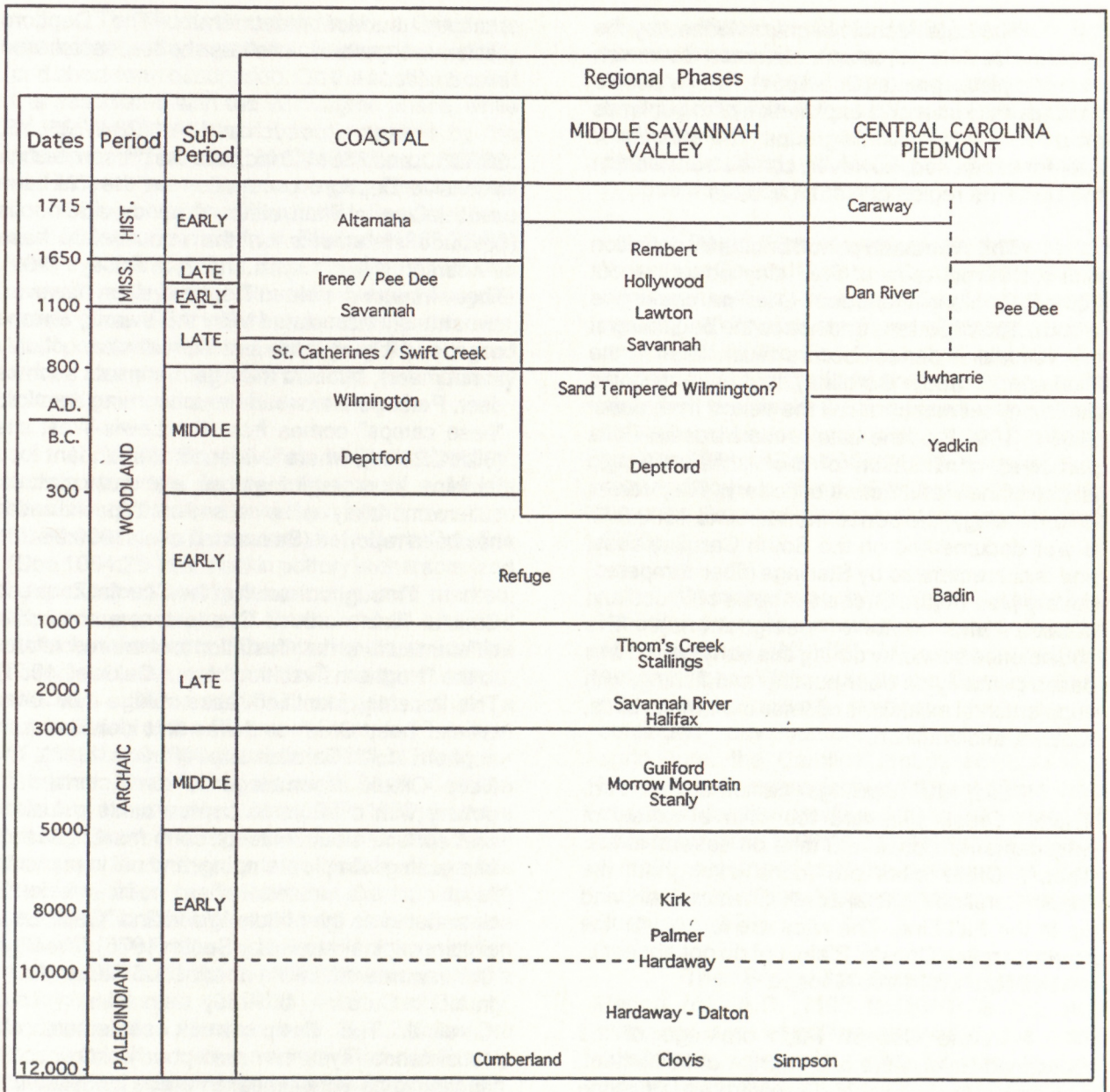

Figure 5. Generalized cultural sequence for South Carolina.

in the coastal plain (Goodyear et al. 1979).

The two primary Middle Archaic phases found in the coastal plain are the Morrow Mountain and Guilford (the Stanly and Halifax complexes identified by Coe are rarely encountered). Our best information on the Middle Woodland comes from sites investigated west of the Appalachian Mountains, such as the work in the Little Tennessee River Valley. The work at Middle Archaic river valley sites, with their evidence of a diverse floral and faunal subsistence base, seems to stand in stark contrast to Caldwell's Middle Archaic "Old Quartz Industry" of Georgia and South Carolina, where axes, choppers, and ground and polished stone tools are very rare.

The Late Archaic is characterized by the appearance of large, square stemmed Savannah River projectile points (Coe 1964). These people continued the intensive exploitation of the uplands much like earlier Archaic groups. The bulk of our data for this period, however, comes from work in the Uwharrie region of North Carolina.

The Woodland period begins by definition with the introduction of fired clay pottery about 2000 B.C. along the South Carolina coast (the introduction of pottery, and hence the beginning of the Woodland period, occurs much later in the Piedmont of South Carolina). It should be noted that many researchers call the period from about 2500 to 1000 B.C. the Late Archaic because of a perceived continuation of the Archaic lifestyle inspite of the manufacture of pottery. Regardless of terminology, the period from 2500 to 1000 B.C. is well documented on the South Carolina coast and is characterized by Stallings (fiber-tempered) pottery (see Figure 5 for a synopsis of Woodland phases and pottery designations). The subsistence economy during this early period was based primarily on deer hunting and fishing, with supplemental inclusions of small mammals, birds, reptiles, and shellfish.

Like the Stallings settlement pattern, Thom's Creek sites are found in a variety of environmental zones and take on several forms. Thom's Creek sites are found throughout the South Carolina Coastal Zone, Coastal Plain, and up to the Fall Line. The sites are found into the North Carolina Coastal Plain, but do not appear to extend southward into Georgia.

In the Coastal Plain drainage of the Savannah River there is a change of settlement, and probably subsistence, away from the riverine focus found in the Stallings Phase (Hanson 1982:13; Stoltman 1974:235-236). Thom's Creek sites are more commonly found in the upland areas and lack evidence of intensive shellfish collection. In the Coastal Zone large, irregular shell middens, small, sparse shell middens; and large "shell rings" are found in the Thom's Creek settlement system.

The Deptford phase, which dates from 1100 B.C. to A.D. 600, is best characterized by fine to coarse sandy paste pottery with a check stamped surface treatment. The Deptford settlement pattern involves both coastal and inland sites.

Inland, sites such as 38AK228-W, 38LX5, 38RD60, and 38BM40 indicate the presence of an extensive Deptford occupation on the Fall Line and the Coastal Plain, although sandy, acidic soils preclude statements on the subsistence base (Anderson 1979; Ryan 1972; Trinkley 1980). These interior or upland Deptford sites, however, are strongly associated with the swamp terrace edge, and this environment is productive not only in nut masts, but also in large mammals such as deer. Perhaps the best data concerning Deptford "base camps" comes from the Lewis-West site (38AK228-W), where evidence of abundant food remains, storage pit features, elaborate material culture, mortuary behavior, and craft specialization has been reported (Sassaman et al. 1990:96-98).

Throughout much of the Coastal Zone and Coastal Plain north of Charleston, a somewhat different cultural manifestation is observed, related to the "Northern Tradition" (e.g., Caldwell 1958). This recently identified assemblage has been termed Deep Creek and was first identified from northern North Carolina sites (Phelps 1983). The Deep Creek assemblage is characterized by pottery with medium to coarse sand inclusions and surface treatments of cord marking, fabric impressing, simple stamping, and net impressing. Much of this material has been previously designated as the Middle Woodland "Cape Fear" pottery originally typed by South (1976). The Deep Creek wares date from about 1000 B.C. to A.D. 1 in North Carolina, but may date later in South Carolina. The Deep Creek settlement and subsistence systems are poorly known, but appear to be very similar to those identified with the Deptford phase.

The Deep Creek assemblage strongly resembles Deptford both typologically and temporally. It appears this northern tradition of cord and fabric impressions was introduced and gradually accepted by indigenous South Carolina populations. During this time some groups continued making only the older carved paddle-stamped pottery, while others mixed the two styles, and still others (and later all) made exclusively cord and fabric stamped wares.

The Middle Woodland in South Carolina is characterized by a pattern of settlement mobility and short-term occupation. On the southern coast it is associated with the Wilmington phase, while on the northern coast it is recognized by the presence of Hanover, McClellanville or Santee, and Mount Pleasant assemblages. The best data concerning Middle Woodland Coastal Zone assemblages comes from Phelps' (1983:32-33) work in North Carolina. Associated items include a small variety of the Roanoke Large Triangular points (Coe 1964:110-111), sandstone abraders, shell pendants, polished stone gorgets, celts, and woven marsh mats. Significantly, both primary inhumations and cremations are found.

On the Coastal Plain of South Carolina, researchers are finding evidence of a Middle Woodland Yadkin assemblage, best known from Coe's work at the Doerschuk site in North Carolina (Coe 1964:25-26). Yadkin pottery is characterized by a crushed quartz temper and cord marked, fabric impressed, and linear check stamped surface treatments. The Yadkin ceramics are associated with medium-sized triangular points, although Oliver (1981) suggests that a continuation of the Piedmont Stemmed Tradition to at least A.D. 300 coexisted with this Triangular Tradition. The Yadkin series in South Carolina was first observed by Ward (1978, 1983) from the White's Creek drainage in Marlboro County, South Carolina. Since then, a large Yadkin village has been identified by DePratter at the Dunlap site (38DA66) in Darlington County, South Carolina (Chester DePratter, personal communication 1985) and Blanton et al. (1986) have excavated a small Yadkin site (38SU83) in Sumter County, South Carolina. Research at 38FL249 on the Roche Carolina tract in northern Florence County revealed an assemblage including Badin, Yadkin, and Wilmington wares (Trinkley et al. 1993:85-102). Anderson et al. (1982:299-302) offer additional typological assessments of the Yadkin wares in South Carolina.

Over the years the suggestion that Cape Fear might be replaced by such types as Deep Creek and Mount Pleasant has raised considerable controversy. Taylor, for example, rejects the use of the North Carolina types in favor of those developed by Anderson et al. (1982) from their work at Mattassee Lake in Berkeley County (Taylor 1984:80). Cable (1991) is even less generous in his denouncement of ceramic constructs developed nearly a decade ago, also favoring adoption of the Mattassee Lake typology and chronology. This construct, recognizing five phases (Deptford I - III, McClellanville, and Santee I), uses a type variety system.

Regardless of terminology, these Middle Woodland Coastal Plain and Coastal Zone phases continue the Early Woodland Deptford pattern of mobility. While sites are found all along the coast and inland to the Fall Line, shell midden sites evidence sparse shell and artifacts. Gone are the abundant shell tools, worked bone items, and clay balls. Recent investigations at Coastal Zone sites such as 38BU747 and 38BU1214, however, have provided some evidence of worked bone and shell items at Deptford phase middens (see Trinkley 1990).

In many respects the South Carolina Late Woodland may be characterized as a continuation of previous Middle Woodland cultural assemblages. While outside the Carolinas there were major cultural changes, such as the continued development and elaboration of agriculture, the Carolina groups settled into a lifeway not appreciably different from that observed for the previous 500 to 700 years (cf. Sassaman et al. 1990:14-15). This situation would remain unchanged until the development of the South Appalachian Mississippian complex (see Ferguson 1971).

The South Appalachian Mississippian Period (ca. A.D. 1100 to 1640) is the most elaborate level of culture attained by the native inhabitants and is followed by cultural disintegration brought about largely by European disease. The period is characterized by complicated stamped pottery, complex social organization, agriculture, and the construction of temple mounds and ceremonial centers. The earliest phases include the Savannah and Pee Dee (A.D. 1200 to 1550).

The Protohistoric Period

The principal secondary sources for the Native Americans of South Carolina are Mooney (1894), Hodge (1910), and Swanton (1952),

although a variety of other authors have offered additional insights (see sources such as Brown 1966, Milling 1969, and Rights 1947). Most recently Wilson (1983) has reviewed a wide range of primary and secondary sources, integrating archaeological investigations, and synthesizing the available information. His study, while concentrating on the Siouan hill tribes of North Carolina and Virginia, is of particular relevance to our understanding of South Carolina's protohistoric and early historic inhabitants. This brief review, however, will offer only a generalized version and Wilson (1983) should be consulted for more detailed information (especially for critical reviews of the earlier secondary sources).

The first Native American groups to make contact with the English settlers and explorers were the "feeble and unwarlike coast tribes" (Gregorie 1926), such as the Cussoes, Wandos, Wineaus, Etiwans, and Sewees. In the Dillon County area it is likely that the Sara (later Cheraw) comprised the most significant group. A number of authors (see both Leacock 1971 and Wilson 1983) have used a series of discrete episodes, documented through ethnographic and archaeological research, to characterize "Indian history".

During the Late Prehistoric (Leacock's Phase I), the proto-Siouan cultures of the southern Piedmont came into contact with the expanding Muskhogean Pee Dee phase of central South Carolina. According to Wilson (1983) this interaction was most intense along the lower Catawba/upper Wateree and lower Yadkin/upper Pee Dee drainages, where the polity came to be known by the Spanish as the Issa or Yssa in the sixteenth century and as the Essaw or Ushery to the English of the late seventeenth century. By the eighteenth century the group was known as the Catawba. Wilson suggests that the Issa and the Indians of the Watered/Catawba drainage were members of the "Grand Chiefdom of Cofitachequi". The second phase, a period of early direct or indirect contact, lasted from the sixteenth century until about 1670, with the founding of a permanent English settlement at Charleston, South Carolina. During this second phase a variety of changes occurred. Cross-drainage contact increased, initially encouraged by Spanish and later English contacts. A variety of new traits, such as the shaft and chamber grave, were introduced from ouside the region. Epidemic disease spread throughout the region, devastating the Native American population and causing extensive disruption in the native culture. Wilson (1983) suggests that the situation encountered by Juan Pedro two and a half decades after De Soto, is indicative of the early decline of the "Pee Dee" core of Cofitachequi and the growing importance of the Issa. Contact between the Piedmont Siouan groups and the English or Spanish was uncommon and primarily through Indian middlemen, such as the Occaneechi or Tuscarora.

The next phase of the Historic Period, termed Phase II by Leacock, is a period of direct contact by the English with the Siouan groups. Periodic epidemics swept through the Native American population and additional disruptions n native culture were caused by alcohol and the slave trade. Regardless, for nearly three decades the Piedmont Siouan groups traded deer skins and furs to the English in South Carolina and Virginia.

The final phase, the period when Euro-American governmental control over the Native Americans was instituted, began in the first decade of the eighteenth century. During this period the stresses of contact finally caused most of the non-Catawba groups to abandon the Piedmont. Some groups, such as the Saponi and Occaneechi, moved to Fort Christana. Other groups, such as the Sara, maintained their independence and moved south to the upper Pee Dee River. In 1715 a census of Indian groups reveals that there were 510 "Saraws," although Mooney (1894) believes this number probably includes the Keyauwee as well, In 1737 the Sara (also known as the Cheraw by this time), who had the Pee Dee, Waxhaw, and Saxapahaw Indians incorporated with them, moved from the Pee Dee westward to join with the Catawba. In spite of this "incorporation" there is good evidence that the Sara maintained their own dialect and culture at least through the first third of the eighteenth century. By 1751 Governor James Glen reported the Sara "live peaceably within our Settlements" and "are Friends to the English." Among the Catawba, the Sara maintained their own village until all of the Indians were placed on a

reservation in the 1760s under the direct control of the South Carolina government. By this time there were only 50 or 60 Sara still living. This move ended the "history" of the Piedmont Indian groups during what we term as the Historic Period.

Into this discussion Stokes offers an interesting sidebar discussion concerning the "Croatan" Indians which is worthy of brief mention in these discussions:

> For many years considerable speculation has been made about the origin and identity of the "Croatans" or "Croatan Indians" of Robeson County, North Carolina. Some of these people have migrated across the line into the adjoining Dillon area and live there today. One conjecture is that the Charraw intermingled with other Indians and their descendants eventually formed this group. Another supposition, and the most romantic, is that these people are the descendants of Indians and the survivors of Sir Walter Raleigh's famous "Lost Colony." There are numerous other theories, none of which has been substantiated, and the Croatan puzzle remains a mystery. As far as been determined, the Charraw [Sara] were the original India inhabitants of present Dillon and the tribe is extinct today (Stokes 1978).

Swanton was the first to suggest that while the bulk of the Keyauwee were likely incorporated with the Catawba, some "of their descendants are represented among the Robeson County Indians, often miscalled Croatan" (Swanton 1952). Regrettably, Swanton offers no evidence for this assertion, regardless the view caught the attention of the public and accounts such as the one offered in the WPA Guide became common:

> In Dillon County live a number of Croatans, a peculiar and primitive people, the majority of whom are found in North Carolina. Ethnologists assert they are racially a mixture of Indian, pioneer white, and Negro . . . . Only in recent years have the Croatans been benefitted by schools and social agencies which have taken cognizance of their isolation and penetrated their ancient resentment (Work Projects Administration 1988 [1941]).

While the exact background of this group is still under investigation, Stokes is correct that the Robeson County groups had little, if any, impact on either the prehistory or early history of the Dillon area.

Historic Overview

What is today known as Dillon County was originally part of Craven County and subsequently part of Parish of Saint James Santee when it was created in 1706. The area next was divided to form the northern tips of both the Parishes of Prince George Winyah and Prince Frederick, formed in 1721 and 1734 respectively from a section of Saint James Santee. Later Dillon formed part of the George Town District Court when it was established in 1769, later becoming Liberty County with the subdivision of the George Town District in 1785. The name was changed into Marion District in 1798 and then Marion County in 1868 (Stokes 1978).

When the historic resources of this portion of South Carolina are examined, few pre-date the late nineteenth century. Latta, Dillon's second largest town, was developed in an area previously known as Nellie's Field. Like the town of Dillon, Latta began in 1887 with building of the new rail line (Anonymous 1970). Dillon's other major community, Lake View, was incorporated in 1907 as Page's Mill, although the name was changed to Lake View in 1916. Older resources include the Cotton Press Farm, five miles west of Latta on S-38, portions of which date to 1791 when it was built by John Hayes. The Bear Swamp Baptist Church is situated on the site of a meeting house built in 1785 on the north bank of Bear Swamp at a point midway between Fayetteville, North

Carolina and Georgetown, South Carolina. The original meeting house burned in 1825 and rebuilt in 1830-1831 (Anonymous 1970). The W.C. Parham House, of two-story frame construction, is thought to have been constructed ca. 1840 by Woodward Manning (Simpson 1984).

The Dillon region was described by the Methodist bishop, Francis Asbury, in glowing terms during the post-Revolutionary period:

> We crossed Little Pee Dee at the Potato Bed Ferry. Beautiful deep sands, live oaks, lofty pines, palmetto swamps, with intermingled gums and laurel, and twining jessamine flinging its odours far and wide around; lawns and savannahs such is the country, and such the charming scenes through which we have frequently passed in our late rides (quoted in Stokes 1978).

And while this description is indeed romantic, as Stokes comments that:

> However inspiring this prospect is today . . . the dense foliage and lush growth of the bogs and marshy river lowlands greatly impeded the actual settlement and subsequent cultivation of the region in South Carolina's colonial period . . . rivers and streams were extensively used as arteries of travel and transportation in the lowcountry of South Carolina. But the meandering watercourses of the Pee Dee and its tributaries were all bordered by morasses choked with wiry vegetation that were the habitat of alligators, dangerous reptiles, and pestilent insects, making access to and from the streams exceedingly difficult (Stokes 1978).

Figure 6. Portion of Mouzon's 1775 *An Accurate Map of North and South Carolina* showing the project area.

A northern visitor perhaps said it more succinctly:

> South Carolina, at least the region traversed by railway, is the most miserable country I ever saw. Swamp, swamp, swamp, all day long. No villages, no houses, no inhabitants, no garden fields, nothing but an interminable swamp. Every half-hour we stop in the middle of the swamp (Lyman Abbott quoted in Drago 1991).

Consequently, while the early settlement did focus on the Great and Little Pee Dee and their tributaries as both transportation and communication routes, the process was slow and settlements were sparse. The earliest settlers entered the region, primarily from North Carolina and Virginia, during the mid-eighteenth century (Dudley 1979). The 1775 Mouzon map (Figure 6) documents this pattern of early settlement in Dillon County, with a focus on inland creeks with easy access to the major rivers. It is only during the nineteenth century that maps begin to show settlement expanding along the developing road systems.

Settlement during the early eighteenth century was also hampered by the remote location of Dillon, which isolated it from other sections of the Carolina backcountry. The two principal trade routes from Charleston into Virginia – one west of the Great Pee Dee towards Charlotte, the other along the coast through Georgetown and Wilmington – skirted Dillon to the east and west, providing little direct access to the region (Stokes 1978). the backcountry lands were often purchased for speculation, although those who settled the region probably first participated in the simple economy beef production – allowing cattle to range through swamplands. This required little capital and could be accomplished with little labor. Later it is likely that the region participated in indigo cultivation, although it seems certain that semisubsistence farming was always the primary occupation.

While geographically part of the Coastal Plain, the Dillon and Pee Dee region continued to be too remote and isolated from the seat of government in Charleston during the early eighteenth century to feel the "taming influences of church and state" (King 1981). More to the point, however, there were a variety of serious complaints the Pee Dee region (as well as the rest of the "lower middle country") had with Charleston. These included both a lack of adequate law enforcement as well as economic policies which hurt the region. These problems created a division between the wealthy planters of Charleston and the small farmers more typical of the interior. In the wake of what many called broken trust, the Regulator movement was created, dominating Dillon like other regions of the backcountry (see Brown 1963).

By the time the Regulators disbanded they had achieved considerable success in reforming the political and economic structure of the region. The Circuit Court Act of 1769 established a system of courts, jails, and sheriffs in four newly created backcountry judicial districts. They had also succeeded in electing six of their candidates to the colonial assembly. Regulations on deer hunting were passed, and many of the Regulators were pardoned for various offenses. Certainly it helped that prominent lowcountry planters were also expanding their own economic interests into the backcountry. Klein (1990) notes that while deep suspicions still existed between the sections, there was an increasing awareness of the powerful economic interests which were drawing the regions closer together.

One of these interests was the brewing revolution. Like other areas dominated by Regulator philosophies, when the American Revolution began there was very little enthusiasm for the goal of freedom from Britain in the Dillon area. In fact, it wasn't politics of the realm, but the politics of confiscation which eventually goaded the upcountry residents into the war. Neutrality faded with the increasingly common "predatory incursions" of Tories from the Scotch settlements in the Cape Fear Valley (Stokes 1978). Three skirmishes were fought in the general Dillon area. The first was the attack on Brown's Regiment in Bear Swamp on October 30, 1780. The second, at Catfish Creek near Hulin's Mill, later known as Bass' Mill, occurred in April 1781. The third, in August 1781, was the battle fought near the Great Pee Dee and Marsh Creek in both Marion and Dillon counties (Stokes 1978).

Another interest drawing together the backcountry and lowcountry was slavery. In 1760 the entire backcountry had on 2,417 African American slaves, representing 4% of the total slave population in Carolina. In contrast, the lowcountry contained 44,501 slaves, representing at least 77% of the total slave population of Carolina (Klein 1990). In order to expand production and enter the colonywide trade pattern, some backcountry planters were expanding their slave holdings. by 1768 about one-twelfth of South Carolina's slaves lived in the backcountry,

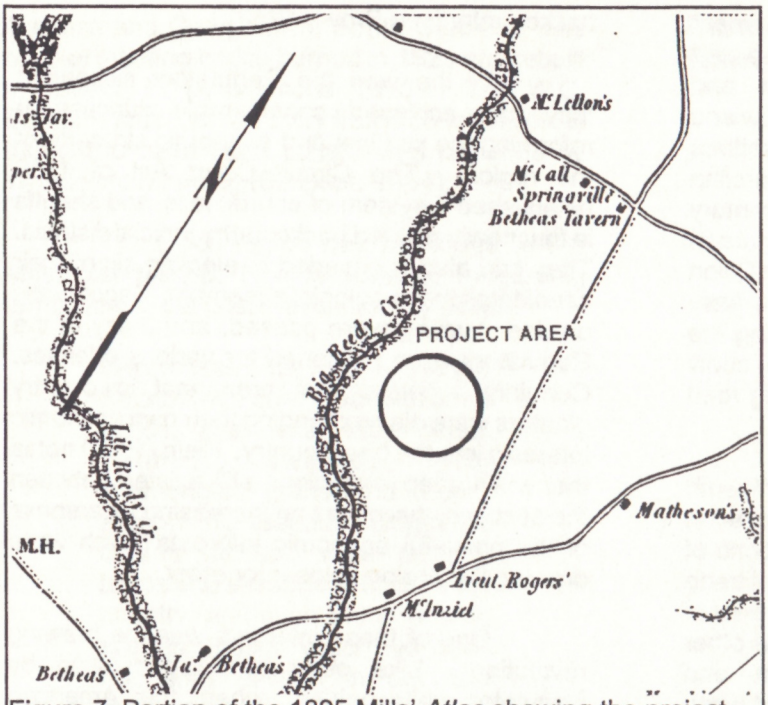

Figure 7. Portion of the 1825 Mills' *Atlas* showing the project area.

where they represented about 20% of the population. In the early 1770s a wealthy Charleston slave merchant, Peter Manigault, remarked that:

> The great Planters have bought few Negroes within these two Years. Upwards of two thirds that have been imported have gone backwards. These people some of them come at the Distance of 300 miles from Chs Town, and will not go back without Negroes, let the Price be what it will. And indeed they can afford it, for it is no uncommon Thing among them to make 150 wt of Indigo to a Hand, and Even at the present price of Indigo and Help, as their Lands cost them little they can well afford to pay £450 for a Negro (quoted in Klein 1990).

Even before the Revolution the backcountry's wealthiest slave holders were concentrated below the fall line, in the region which would later be termed the "middle country" and which contained today's Dillon County. This middle territory provided somewhat easier access to markets and formed a transition zone into the "true" backcountry. In 1770 the 221 plantations of the middlecountry had 1,432 slaves compared to the 177 slaves on the 83 upcountry plantations. The top quintile of the middlecountry plantations had a value of £274,103, compared to only £50,412 for the top quintile of upcountry estates (Klein 1990). Into the early 1800s the middlecountry, and especially the Cheraws region, remained transitional between the predominately slave owning lowcountry and the yeoman upcountry. Slaves in the middlecountry composed about a third of the whole population and slave holders composed about a third of all households.

Cotton, while was making inroads and creating a greater demand for African American slaves in some middlecountry regions (especially around Camden where a new plantation elite was developing), had relatively little impact on the Cheraws or Dillon area. For example, while the slave population increased 139% from 5,519 to 13,202 between 1790 and 1800 in the Camden area, it increased only 51% in the Cheraws, where the number of slaves grew from 3,229 to 4,877. By 1810 there were 6,079 slaves in the Cheraw region, an increase of only 25% from 1800 (Klein 1990).

In the early nineteenth century Robert Mills remarked that Marion (then containing the land which would later form Dillon County) was noted for its swamps, which offered the most productive, richest soils, especially compared to the upland which was sandy. When reclaimed and "secured from freshets" the swamps brought $50 an acre, compared to only $1 an acre for the upland pine lands (Mills 1972 [1826]). Plantations, while not common, planted cotton, corn, potatoes, and wheat. The 1826 Mills' *Atlas* for the Marion District shows no settlements in the project area (Figure 7).

In 1850 Marion County was inhabited by 9,781 whites and 7,520 blacks, although the county exhibits a relatively modest standing when its agricultural production is examined. Marion ranked 17th (out of 29) in cotton production, with a yield of 8680 bales (or 3,472,000 pounds) of ginned cotton and 17th in corn production, with 476,718 bushels. Only 817 pounds of tobacco and 2,986 bushels of wheat were produced. Marion did, however, rank in the top 10 rice producing counties, with 513,825 pounds largely being harvested from inland swamps (DeBow 1854).

The Civil War was relatively gentle on the Pee Dee region, although Sherman's troops traveled through the valleys of both Pee Dees in 1868, causing extensive damage and loss (Stokes 1978). After the Civil War and the emancipation of the large slave population the plantation system as it existed prior to the war was radically altered through the adoption of labor contracts and later cash tenancy. In many respects the lavor contracts established a new form of slavery – being as strict as bondage and offering as little hope of economic and social freedom. A typical labor contract after the war required black laborers to perform "any and all kinds of work usually done on a plantation" and " to stay on the place all the time." The laborers were required to:

> get up at daybreak and do such small jobs about the house that are to be done before Breakfast, to have their Breakfast eat and ready to go at regular work by the time the sun is fully up and work all day except one hour and a half for Dinner from the 1st of May until the 1st of October and one hour for Dinner the balance of the year.

Furthermore, parents were required to "see that their children work," and to assume accountability for their offspring if they lost or broke tools or damaged the farm animals by abuse. A typical contract gave blacks "sixty bushels of corn, and board for himself wife & six children with three suits of clothing during the year and Leather enough to make himself wife and Their oldest children one pair of shoes" (Stokes 1978).

Sidney Andrews, a journalist who toured South Carolina in 1865, found the blacks in Marion District "orderly," though receiving what he considered starvation pay. He also found the white landowners uncooperative in complying with their part of the contracts, often delaying payments after harvest, or refusing to provide promised provisions for minor infractions (Stokes 1978). This reaction to blacks was predictable – in 1869 the local newspaper, the *Star*, remarked "THE OWNERS OF THE SOIL MUST CONTROL THE LABOR" and added, "Those who own the soil should govern it." Eventually the Jim Crow laws

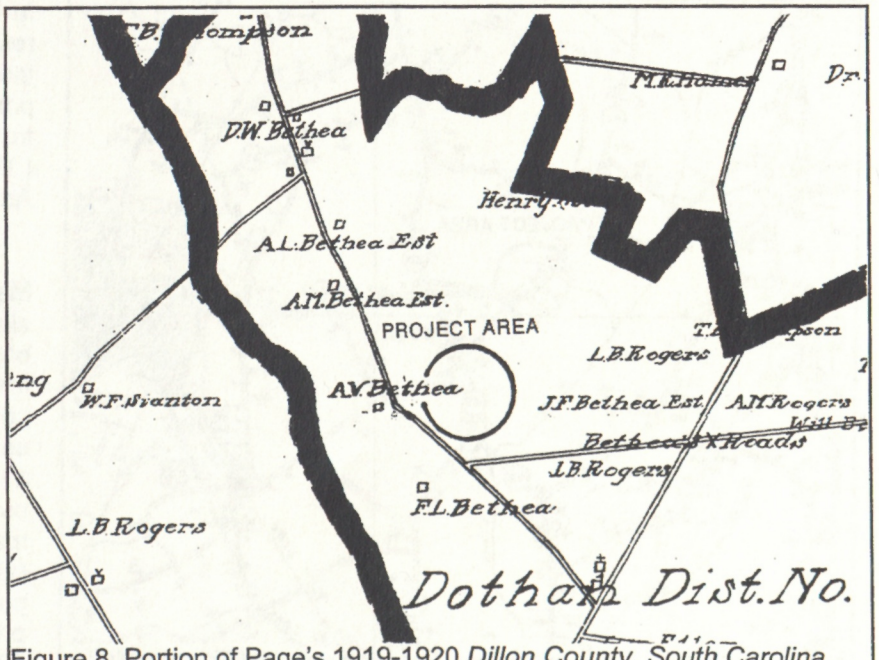

Figure 8. Portion of Page's 1919-1920 *Dillon County, South Carolina* map showing the project area.

codified a new form of black slavery which lasted well into the twentieth century.

Efforts to recover after the Civil War were hindered not only by the repressive nature of Southern whites, but by an associated slump in agricultural production which dramatically reduced cash flow. In 1870 the Marion area produced only 5267 bales of cotton, down by nearly 40%. Corn production, as an indicator of subsistence rather than cash farming, was down by 50%. some recovery was taking place by 1890, when corn production was up to 401,788 bushels, although this was still 16% less than the 1850 corn production. Cotton, however, was up to 25,993 bales – an increase over 1850 levels by nearly 200% (Stokes 1978).

By the 1880s Marion's agricultural system was reportedly dominated by wage labor, although at least 500 farms were "rented" by blacks and another 1,000 farms were worked by blacks (*The News and Courier* 1884). In addition to agriculture, the county also boasted 90 flour and grist mills, 31 lumber mills, 22 turpentine stills, and one foundry. Stokes (1978) observes that while industries such as turpentine and rosin production provided relatively little income, they were steady. The greatest problem, however, remained transportation and getting items to the lowcountry markets. Consequently, settlement and economic growth remained sparse and poor until the development of the Atlantic Coastline Railroad between 1887 and 1888. The Atlantic Coast Line Railroad wanted to join its lines between North Carolina and Florence and while the shortest route was via Little Rock (northwest of present Dillon), right-of-way could not be acquired. A local resident, James W. Dillon, offered the rail line half interest in an alternate route with the single stipulation being that a stop by established in the vicinity of what is today Dillon (Anonymous 1970). Commenting on the new town of Dillon, on observer remarked that:

> His municipal namesake is a town of wide streets that begin in fields of tobacco, cotton, and wheat and end at the courthouse, which covers the site of Revolutionary war skirmishes. Produce flows in to be shipped to Eastern and Northern markets by rail or truck. A textile mill and other factories have brought industrial interests into this farming area. Older residents remember when the business section was a pond where they caught trout, redbreast, and bream (Work Projects Administration 1988 [1941]).

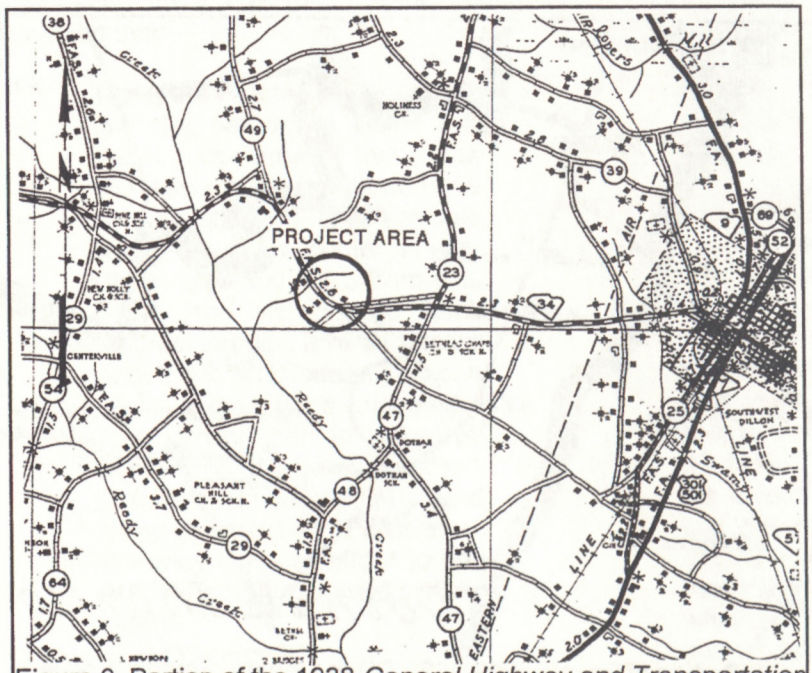

Figure 9. Portion of the 1938 *General Highway and Transportation Map of Dillon County* showing the project area.

Into the twentieth century Marion continued to be a rather sleepy county. By 1900 the population was only 35,181. In the first decade of the twentieth century cotton was planted on 32,904 acres, second only to corn and producing 31,488 bales (there were even two cotton mills in the county). Tobacco, made popular by the adoption of bright leaf flue-cured varieties, was planted on 7,336 acres and produced 6,145,000 pounds (Watson 1907).

Incorporation in February 1910 established Dillon as a separate political and judicial entity from Marion County. Resulting from complaints primarily centered on transportation problems and the distance from the county seat, this step established a more "manageable" county encompassing about half the acreage of previous Marion County. One of the earliest surveys of the new county, "Map of Dillon County, South Carolina," compiled by Otis M. Page in 1919-1920 shows the project area across from A.V. Bethea's property, whose family seemed to own much of the land on the same road (Figure 8).

Dudley (1978) noted that the population of Dillon steadily declined in the first third of the twentieth century, largely the result of a depressed economy and poor agricultural practices which caused extensive sheet erosion. It was only in the second half of this century that the population steadied and once again began to increase. By 1921 there were 60,000 acres in cotton producing 35,000 bales and 31,000 acres planted in corn with a yield of 589,000 bushels (Stokes 1978).

The 1938 *General Highway and Transportation Map of Dillon County* still reveals a structure across the street, but no structures are located in the project area (Figure 9).

METHODS

Archaeological Field Methods

The initially proposed field techniques involved the placement of shovel tests at 100-foot intervals along transects placed at 100-foot intervals.

All soil would be screened through ¼-inch mesh, with each test numbered sequentially by transect. Each test would measure about 1 foot square and would normally be taken to a depth of at least 1.0 foot or until subsoil was encountered. All cultural remains would be collected, except for mortar and brick, which would be quantitatively noted in the field and discarded. Notes would be maintained for profiles at any sites encountered.

Should sites (defined by the presence of three or more artifacts from either surface survey or shovel tests within a 50 feet area) be identified, further tests would be used to obtain data on site boundaries, artifact quantity and diversity, site integrity, and temporal affiliation. These tests would be placed at 25 to 50 feet intervals in a simple cruciform pattern until two consecutive negative shovel tests were encountered. The information required for completion of South Carolina Institute of Archaeology and Anthropology site forms would be collected and photographs would be taken, if warranted in the opinion of the field investigators.

These proposed techniques were implemented with no significant modifications. As previously reported, the survey area was located entirely on a fallow field. Nevertheless, the project area was clearly defined by survey stakes.

The GPS positions were taken with a Garmin GPS 12XL rover that tracks up to twelve satellites, each with a separate channel that is continuously being read. The benefit of parallel channel receivers is their improved sensitivity and ability to obtain and hold a satellite lock in difficult situations, such as in forests or urban environments where signal obstruction is a frequent problem. This was not a vital concern for the study area.

GPS accuracy is generally affected by a number of sources of potential error, including errors with satellite clocks, multipathing, and selective availablity. Satellite clock errors can occur when the satellites' clock is off by as little as a millisecond, or when a slightly-askew orbit results in a distance error. Multipathing occurs when the signal bounces off trees, chain-link fences, or bodies of water. Multipathing was probably not a significant source of error for this study since the site area was cleared and our reading was taken in the center of the site. The source of most extreme GPS errors is selective availability (SA), the deliberate mistiming of satellite signals by the Department of Defense. This degradation results in horizontal errors of up to 100 m 95% of the time, although the error may be as much as 300 m. Nevertheless, selective availability has been turned off by the DOD. We have previously determined the 3D[1] and DGPS readings with the Garmin 12XL were identical. Therefore, we relied on 3D navigation mode, with expected potential horizontal errors of 6 m or less.

Architectural Survey

As previously discussed, we elected to use a 0.5 mile area of potential effect (APE). The architectural survey would record buildings, sites, structures, and objects which appeared to have been constructed before 1950. Typical of such projects, this survey recorded only those which "have kept their integrity" (Anonymous n.d.:4) and which were visible from public roads.

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[1]A basic requirement for GPS position accuracy is having a lock on at least four satellites, which places the receiver in 3D mode. This is critical – as an example, positions calculated with less than four satellites can have horizontal errors in excess of a mile, or over 1,600 m.

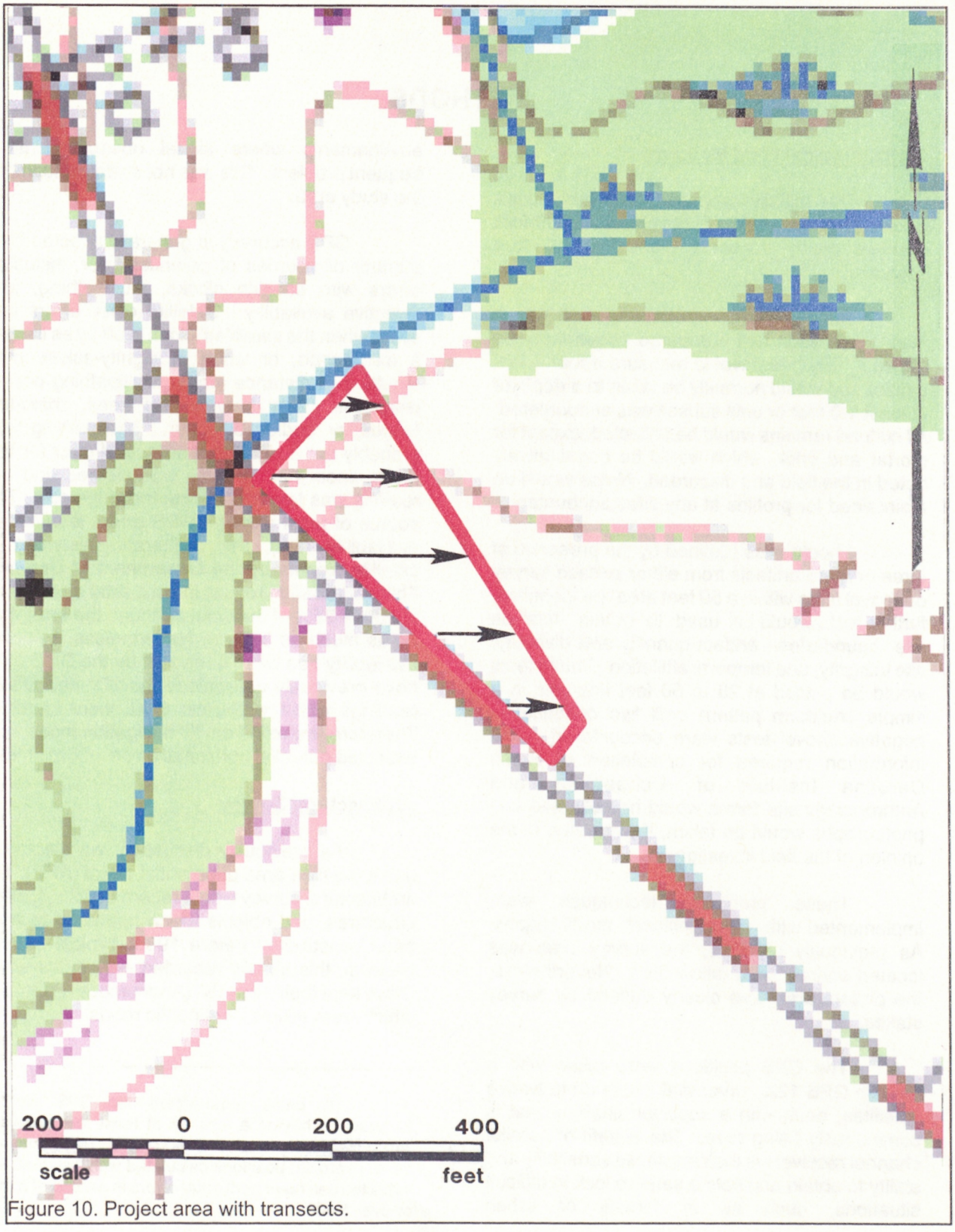

Figure 10. Project area with transects.

For each identified resource we would complete a Statewide Survey Site Form and at least two representative photographs were taken. Permanent control numbers would be assigned by the Survey Staff of the S.C. Department of Archives and History at the conclusion of the study. The Site Forms for the resources identified during this study would be submitted to the S.C. Department of Archives and History.

Site Evaluation

Archaeological sites will be evaluated for further work based on the eligibility criteria for the National Register of Historic Places. Chicora Foundation only provides an opinion of National Register eligibility and the final determination is made by the lead federal agency, in consultation with the State Historic Preservation Officer at the South Carolina Department of Archives and History.

The criteria for eligibility to the National Register of Historic Places is described by 36CFR60.4, which states:

> the quality of significance in American history, architecture, archaeology, engineering, and culture is present in districts, sites, buildings, structures, and objects that possess integrity of location, design, setting, materials, workmanship, feeling, and association, and
>
> a. that are associated with events that have made a significant contribution to the broad patterns of our history; or
>
> b. that are associated with the lives of persons significant in our past; or
>
> c. that embody the distinctive characteristics of a type, period, or method of construction or that represent the work of a master, or that possess high artistic values, or that represent a significant and distinguishable entity whose components may lack individual distinction; or
>
> d. that have yielded, or may be likely to yield, information important in prehistory or history.

National Register Bulletin 36 (Townsend et al. 1993) provides an evaluative process that contains five steps for forming a clearly defined explicit rationale for either the site's eligibility or lack of eligibility. Briefly, these steps are:

- identification of the site's data sets or categories of archaeological information such as ceramics, lithics, subsistence remains, architectural remains, or sub-surface features;
- identification of the historic context applicable to the site, providing a framework for the evaluative process;
- identification of the important research questions the site might be able to address, given the data sets and the context;
- evaluation of the site's archaeological integrity to ensure that the data sets were sufficiently well preserved to address the research questions; and
- identification of important research questions among all of those which might be asked and answered at the site.

This approach, of course, has been developed for use documenting eligibility of sites being actually nominated to the National Register of Historic Places where the evaluative process must stand alone, with relatively little reference to other documentation and where typically only one site is being considered. As a result, some aspects of the evaluative process have been

summarized, but we have tried to focus on an archaeological site's ability to address significant research topics within the context of its available data sets.

For architectural sites the evaluative process was somewhat different. Given the relatively limited architectural data available for most of the properties, we focus on evaluating these sites using National Register Criterion C, looking at the site's "distinctive characteristics." Key to this concept is the issue of integrity. This means that the property needs to have retained, essentially intact, its physical identity from the historic period.

Particular attention would be given to the integrity of design, workmanship, and materials. Design includes the organization of space, proportion, scale, technology, ornamentation, and materials. As *National Register Bulletin* 36 observes, "Recognizability of a property, or the ability of a property to convey its significance, depends largely upon the degree to which the design of the property is intact" (Townsend et al. 1993:18). Workmanship is evidence of the artisan's labor and skill and can apply to either the entire property or to specific features of the property. Finally, materials — the physical items used on and in the property — are "of paramount importance under Criterion C" (Townsend et al. 1993:19). Integrity here is reflected by maintenance of the original material and avoidance of replacement materials.

Laboratory Analysis

The cleaning and analysis of artifacts was conducted in Columbia at the Chicora Foundation laboratories. These materials have been catalogued and accessioned for curation at the South Carolina Institute of Archaeology and Anthropology, the closest regional repository. The site form for the identified archaeological site has been filed with the South Carolina Institute of Archaeology and Anthropology. Field notes and photographic materials have been prepared for curation using archival standards and will be transferred to that agency as soon as the project is complete.

Analysis methods focused on occupation spans, likely functions of the various sites and changes in raw material or ceramic preferences. With prehistoric sites, diagnostic lithics and/or pottery provide temporal information. the ceramics were compared to published type descriptions where available (such as Coe 1964).

Debitage categories might include primary (defined as flakes with 90% or more cortex), secondary (defined as having less than 90% cortex), or interior (defined as having no cortex). These categories, widely used, are briefly explained by Yohe (1996:54-56; for further information see Blanton et al. 1986 or Oliver et al. 1986).

Shatter is often called chunks by other researchers. Either term is typically applied to angular pieces of debitage of various sizes. They lack observable striking platforms, dorsal and ventral faces, or other characteristics of flakes. These items are often, although not always blocky and angular. Shatter is thought to have been produced in greatest numbers in the very earliest stages of tool production.

Points, also called hafted bifaces by some, are symmetrical, pointed bifaces which are modified for hafting. The diagnostic lithic remains were compared to published typological descriptions for the various projectile points such as Coe (1952, 1964), Oliver (1981), and South (1959). Items which can not be securely identified because of damage or which lack the often definitive basal sections are classified simply as bifaces.

At this survey level tools are defined very simply, being placed in broad morphological categories. Our laboratory methods, for example, define a biface as an artifact with flakes removed on both sides (not distinguishing between preforms, early stage reductions, and so forth); a core is a piece of raw material from which flakes have been removed; an end scraper is a blade tool with at least one convex end which exhibits a steep angle; a used flake is a chip of stone that was used as a tool, exhibiting edge damage or wear; and a side scraper is a flake tool in which one of the long edges was retouched to serve as the scraping edge. These definitions generally follow those provided by Yohe (1996).

RESULTS OF SURVEY

Introduction

As a result of this cultural resources survey one site (38DN129) was identified. This site is recommended not eligible for inclusion on the National Register due to the lack of artifact density and lack of any diagnostic materials.

The architectural survey identified two historical structures, 0025 and 0026, in the APE with 0025 recommended eligible for inclusion on the National Register of Historic Places and 0026 is recommended potentially eligible for inclusion on the National Register of Historic Places.

Site

38DN129

Site 38DN129 consists of a surface scatter of prehistoric lithics and ceramics. It is situated on a ridge nose at an elevation of about 115 feet AMSL and is bordered by a branch of Reedy Creek to the north. Topography in the area is fairly level, with a slight decrease in elevation toward Reedy Creek.

Typical vegetation around the area includes pines and hardwoods, but the site itself is found entirely in a disturbed area of a fallow field. A central UTM coordinate for the site is E642670 N3810080 (NAD27 datum). The site is accessible from S-34 which runs along the southwest edge of the site.

Although shovel tests were completed at the originally proposed 100-foot intervals, this site was initially discovered through a pedestrian survey of the area. No shovel tests were positive, but additional tests were placed in a simple cruciform pattern at 50-foot intervals around the site area.

Shovel tests in the site area produced profiles which generally resemble Dothan loamy fine sands. This series has an Ap horizon of dark grayish brown (10YR4/2) loamy fine sand to a depth of 0.7 foot over a layer of light yellowish brown (10YR6/4) loamy sand which occurs to a depth of 1.2 feet.

The surface collection revealed a sparse scatter of materials including four chert flakes, one

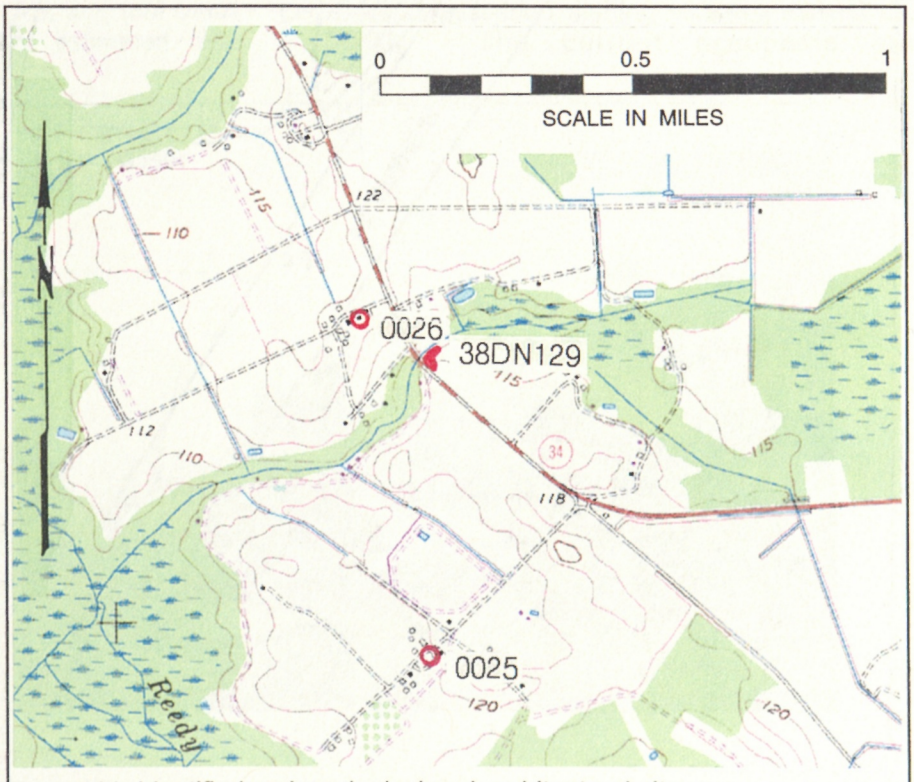

Figure 11. Identified archaeological and architectural sites.

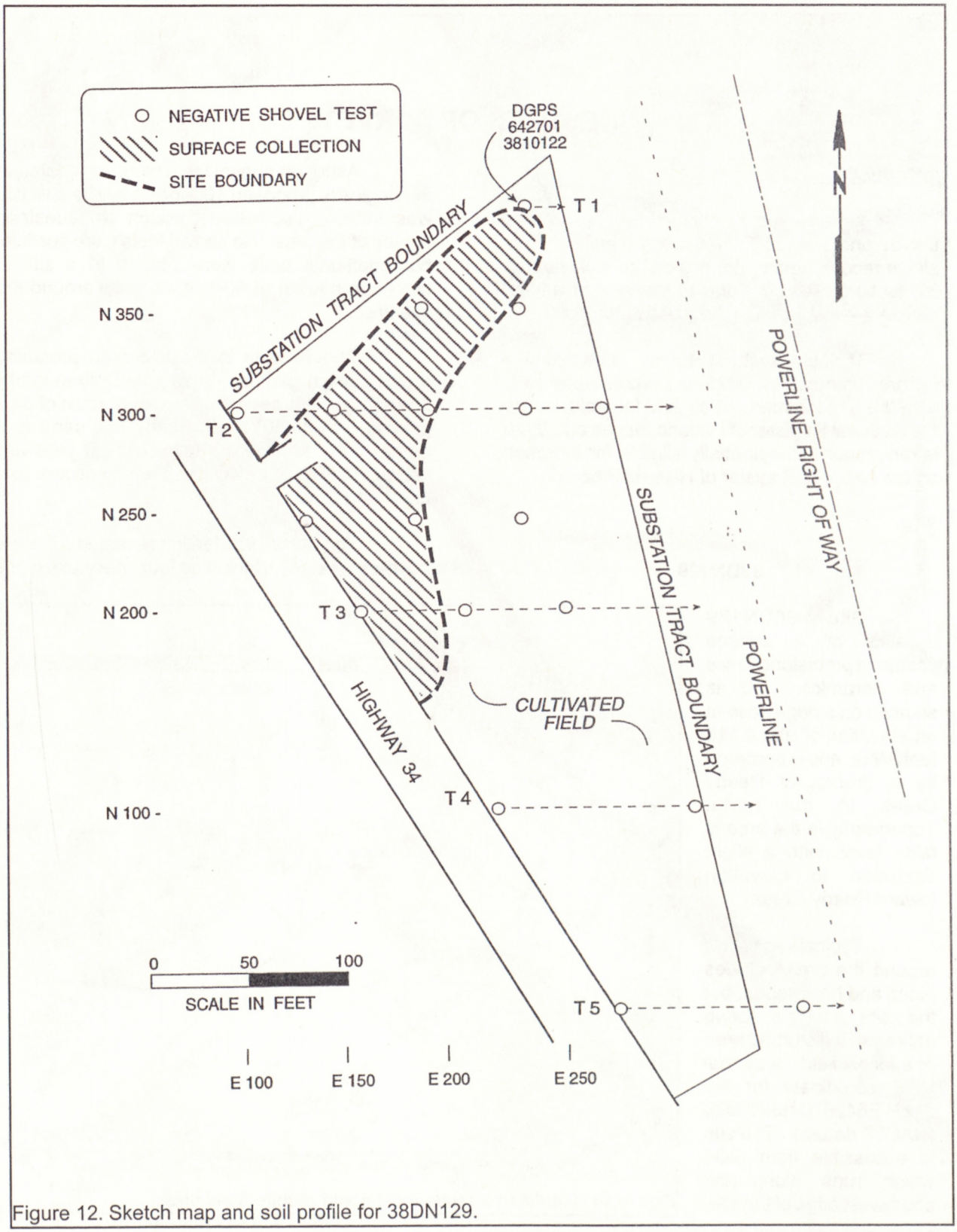

Figure 12. Sketch map and soil profile for 38DN129.


Figure 13. View of 38DN129 in a cultivated field.

quartz flake, one quartzite flake, and four small unidentifiable sherds. An estimated site dimension is 150 feet by 125 feet, although as mentioned, the site is very sparse and most likely extended beyond the boundaries of the survey area.

This site failed to produce the artifact density and diversity needed to address significant research questions. Moreover, no diagnostic artifacts were found, making it even less likely that this site will be able to answer any research questions. Therefore, we recommend this site not eligible for inclusion on the National Register of Historic Places. No additional management activity is recommended pending review of the State Historic Preservation Office.

Historic and Architectural Resources

There are two architectural or historical sites identified within the 0.5 mile APE (see Figure 11).

Site 0025 is a cross gable roof house ca. 1850. It currently goes by the name Rose Dale Plantation. The L-shaped porch covers the front and left elevation. At least two rear porches have been added starting with the earliest ca. 1910. The current occupants are


Figure 14. Structure 0025 looking southwest at main facade.

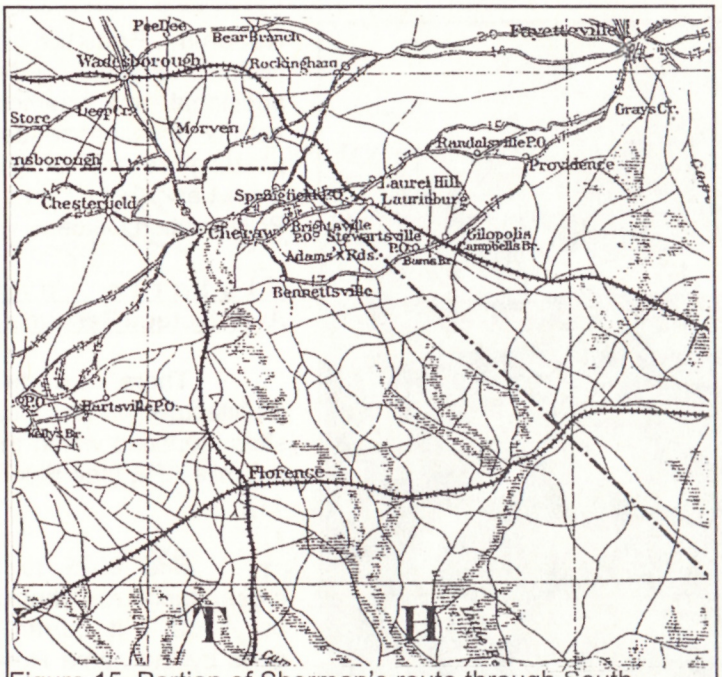

Figure 15. Portion of Sherman's route through South Carolina (From *The Official Military Atlas of the Civil War*, Sheet CXVII).

descendants of the original Bethea owners shown on the 1919 map (see Figure 8). According to the owners, a group of men from Sherman's troops boarded in one of the outbuildings and killed all the livestock on the plantation. It is rumored that these men were sent to burn down the house, but were bribed to leave it standing. A map of Sherman's routes through South Carolina shows Cheraw as one of the closest cities on the route and no routes through the Dillon area are shown (Figure 15). This, however, does not mean that a small contingent did not break off from the main troops. Glatthaar (1985), for example, notes that troops reached Bennettsville, located about 20 miles west of the survey area in Marlboro County. Additional background research should be conducted to try to accurately determine the documented history of this structure.

At least 12 additional outbuildings are associated with the plantation and one tenant house is located just outside the main plantation area. Because of the house's association with a significant period in history, it is recommended eligible for inclusion on the National Register of Historic Places. This house is about 0.5 mile from the project area and is not visible from the proposed substation lot. It is unlikely that the substation will have any adverse effects on the house.

Structure 0026 or Hillcrest Farms, is a ca. 1910 house with a truncated hip and multiple gabled roof. The porch is situated on the front and right elevation and has a hip roof with a porte cochere on the right side of the house. It appears that the porch also circled the left elevation, but it has been recently (ca.1960) turned into a sunroom. The chimneys


Figure 16. Structure 0026 looking west at front facade.

are corbeled and a widows walk is on the roof.

Several outbuildings are associated with the house. The 1919 map shows another Bethea member as owning the house and according to the owners of structure 0025, a descendant still owns the property (see Figure 8). Unfortunately, no one was available to provide additional information concerning this structure and its history. We recommend this structure potentially eligible for inclusion on the National Register of Historic Places.

Because of its proximity to the survey area, this house is likely to be affected by short-term construction effects such as dust, noise, and construction traffic. While shrubbery and other vegetation currently shield this structure from direct view of the proposed substation, and any landscape alteration may create adverse visual intrusion. We recommend a landscape plan be developed to help minimize any visual intrusion.

CONCLUSIONS

This study involved the examination of an approximately 1.32 acres of land for the proposed Dillon Industrial 69kV Project. The station is located west of the city of Dillon along S-34. This work, conducted for Central Electric Power Cooperative, examined archaeological sites and cultural resources found on the proposed project area and is intended to assist this organization and their client comply with their historic preservation responsibilities.

As a result of this investigation, one archaeological site, 38DN129 was identified within the study tract. 38DN129 contained a surface collection of prehistoric lithics and ceramics. This site contained no diagnostic artifacts, and due to cultivation, the integrity of the site has been largely damaged. It is also unlikely that this site can produce any additional information about the prehistoric period. We recommend this site not eligible for inclusion on the National Register of Historic Places.

A survey of historic sites was conducted within a 0.5 mile APE. Two structures were encountered, 0025 and 0026. Structure 0025 is a ca. 1850 house with a cross gable roof. It is recommended eligible for inclusion on the National Register of Historic Places due to its association with history in the area. Structure 0026 is a ca. 1910 house with a truncated hip and multiple gabled roof. This house may have the ability to provide information about the architectural tradition and history of rural Dillon County. It is recommended potentially eligible for inclusion on the National Register of Historic Places.

It is possible that archaeological remains may be encountered during construction activities. As always, contractors should be advised to report any discoveries of concentrations of artifacts (such as bottles, ceramics, or projectile points) or brick rubble to the project engineer, who should in turn report the material to the State Historic Preservation Office, or Chicora Foundation (the process of dealing with late discoveries is discussed in 36CFR800.13(b)(3)). No further land altering activities should take place in the vicinity of these discoveries until they have been examined by an archaeologist and, if necessary, have been processed according to 36CFR800.13(b)(3).

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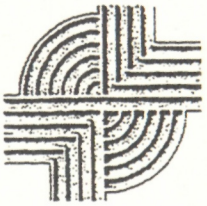

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